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ALLAMA IQBAL OPEN UNIVERSITY, ISLAMABAD

Course: Elementary School Management (5019/622) • Level: B.Ed.

Semester: Autumn 2026

Assignment No. 2 (Units 5–9)

Total Marks: 100 • Pass Marks: 50

SOLVED ASSIGNMENT GUIDE

(For Study & Reference)

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Note: This guide is prepared for study and reference purposes. Students are advised to read the relevant units of the course book, understand the concepts, and then write the assignment in their own words. Total marks of this assignment are 100 and the pass marks are 50.

Question 1: Concept, Objectives and Steps of Educational Planning at the Elementary Level; Micro-Level Planning (20 Marks)

Elaborate the concept, objectives, and steps of educational planning at the elementary level. How does micro-level planning benefit local schools?

Introduction

No educational system can distribute teachers, buildings, books and money fairly and effectively by improvisation. Educational planning is the rational, systematic process by which a country, a district or a single school decides what education it will provide, to whom, at what standard, with what resources and in what sequence — before the resources are actually

committed. At the elementary level this planning has special importance, because elementary education is the foundation of the whole system, the stage at which the largest number of children is served, and the stage at which the cost of failure — a child who leaves school unable to read — is paid for the rest of that child's life. In Pakistan, Article 25-A of the Constitution makes free and compulsory education for children aged five to sixteen a right, and provincial free and compulsory education laws give that right legal form; planning is the machinery by which such commitments are converted into classrooms, teachers and learning. This answer explains the concept of educational planning, sets out its objectives at the elementary level, describes the steps of the planning process, and finally shows how micro-level planning — planning at the level of the school and its immediate locality — benefits local schools.

Concept of Educational Planning

Educational planning may be defined as the process of preparing a set of decisions for action in the future, directed at achieving educational goals by the best possible means, on the basis of facts about the present situation and forecasts about the future. Several features of this definition deserve notice. First, planning is future-oriented but fact-based: it begins from a diagnosis of the present — how many children are in and out of school, how many teachers and rooms exist, what results are being achieved — and projects that reality forward, estimating the school-age population, enrolment and resource needs of the coming years. Second, planning is concerned with choice: resources are always insufficient for every desirable purpose, so planning weighs alternatives — a new classroom against additional teachers, expansion of an existing school against a new school — and selects the combination that yields the greatest

educational benefit. Third, planning links education with the wider society: the demand for education arises from population growth, social aspirations and economic needs, and the supply depends on public finance and trained manpower, so educational planning is a part of national and provincial development planning rather than an isolated departmental exercise.

Fourth, planning operates at several levels. Macro-level planning is done for the country or province: it fixes enrolment targets, the share of the budget for education, teacher supply and broad standards. Meso-level planning is done at the district or tehsil level, distributing schools, posts and funds among localities. Micro-level planning is done at the level of the individual school and its catchment area, translating general targets into a concrete plan for that school's children, staff, rooms and community. The levels are interdependent: macro plans without micro knowledge misallocate resources, while micro plans without a macro framework lack funds and authority. Fifth, planning is continuous, not occasional. A plan is implemented, monitored, evaluated and revised as circumstances change; the annual school plan and the five-year development plan are both moments in this continuing cycle. Understood in this way, planning is neither a document nor a ritual but a disciplined habit of deciding on evidence, in advance, with priorities.

Objectives of Educational Planning at the Elementary Level

The objectives of planning at the elementary level flow from the purpose of elementary education itself — universal, equitable and effective basic learning — and may be stated as follows.

- Universal access and enrolment. The first objective is that every child of elementary-school age in the area should have a school within reasonable reach and a place in it. Planning pursues this objective by mapping population and existing schools, identifying unserved settlements, and providing new schools, additional classrooms or rationalized catchment areas in a phased manner.
- Retention and completion. Enrolment alone is a hollow achievement if children drop out within a year or two. Planning therefore aims at retention: forecasting where and why dropout occurs (poverty, distance, poor teaching, lack of toilets for girls) and providing the corresponding remedies, so that the maximum number of entrants complete the elementary cycle.
- Equity. Planning seeks to distribute educational opportunity fairly among regions, between rural and urban areas, between boys and girls, and towards disadvantaged groups, including children with disabilities and the poorest families. Because markets and local initiative alone concentrate provision where demand is already strong, deliberate planning is the principal instrument of educational justice.
- Quality and learning. A further objective is that schooling should produce real learning — literacy, numeracy, knowledge, skills and values. Planning serves quality by providing trained teachers in the right numbers and places, textbooks and materials on time, manageable class sizes, supervision and in-service training, all of which must be foreseen and budgeted, not left to chance.
- Efficiency and economy. Planning aims to obtain the greatest educational result from limited public funds: avoiding schools that are too small to be viable or too large to be

personal, deploying teachers where enrolment justifies them, scheduling construction so that buildings are ready for the session, and reducing repetition and wastage that consume resources without producing learning.

- Balanced growth and manpower preparation. Elementary planning also looks ahead, ensuring that the flow of completers matches the capacity of middle and secondary schools and, in the long run, the needs of the economy and society for literate, trainable citizens.
- Community participation and accountability. Finally, modern planning aims to involve parents and communities in the schools development and to make the use of resources transparent and answerable thereby building the public trust on which a public system depends.

Steps of Educational Planning

Although models differ in detail, the planning process at the elementary level generally passes through the following steps. The first step is diagnosis of the present situation. Planners collect and analyse data: the number of children by age and village, current enrolment by grade and gender, dropout and repetition rates, the number and qualifications of teachers, the condition of buildings, existing materials and finance, and current learning achievement. In a district this rests on the education management information system; in a school it rests on its registers and records. Honest diagnosis is the foundation of everything that follows, and planning that begins from flattering or fictitious data will misdirect every rupee. The second step is the setting of objectives and targets. In the light of policy — for example, universal enrolment within five years — the diagnosis is converted into concrete, dated and measurable targets: enrolment to

be raised from 78 to 95 per cent, two additional classrooms, three vacant posts filled, girls' enrolment equalized, reading standards at Grade 3 raised to a defined benchmark.

The third step is forecasting and projection: estimating how the situation will develop if present trends continue — population growth, expected entrants, teachers retiring, funds likely to be available — so that needs are quantified for each year of the plan period. The fourth step is the formulation of alternative strategies and programmes: for each target, different means are costed and compared, and programmes are designed, such as a construction programme, a teacher deployment and training programme, a textbook supply schedule and an enrolment campaign. The fifth step is costing and resource allocation, in which financial, human and material requirements are matched against expected resources, priorities are fixed where resources fall short, and a budget is prepared. The sixth step is formal approval and the preparation of the final plan document, which states objectives, programmes, responsibilities, timelines and costs in a form on which officers, headteachers and committees can act. The seventh step is implementation, in which the plan is broken into annual and term-wise operational plans and the work is actually carried out by the responsible persons. The eighth and final step is monitoring and evaluation: progress against targets is checked at fixed intervals, deviations are explained, and the plan is revised where conditions have changed. Evaluation at the end of the period feeds directly into the diagnosis with which the next planning cycle begins, so that planning is a revolving process of learning, not a single document filed and forgotten.

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Micro-Level Planning and Its Benefits for Local Schools

Micro-level planning is planning done at the level of the individual school and its immediate community, usually embodied in a school development plan prepared by the headteacher with the staff and the school management committee. Its starting point is intimate local knowledge: which mohalla or village sends few children and why; which families keep girls at home; the seasonal migration or harvest work that empties classrooms at certain months; the actual condition of each room and the real strength of each teacher. From this knowledge the school prepares its own plan — enrolment targets by class, an attendance drive, a timetable, a schedule for the use of its funds, repairs and improvements in priority order, and term-wise learning targets — within the framework and resources of the district plan.

The benefits of this approach for local schools are substantial. First, it makes planning realistic: district averages conceal local realities, whereas a school plan is built child by child and room by room, so its targets can actually be met and its failures honestly explained. Second, it produces ownership. Teachers and committee members who have helped to prepare a plan regard it as theirs and work for it; a plan received as an order from above is obeyed, at best, mechanically. Third, it mobilizes local resources: the community that participates in planning a boundary wall, a water arrangement or a book bank frequently contributes land, labour, materials or funds, and watches the result with pride. Fourth, it permits quick adaptation: the school can adjust its timetable to harvest seasons, open a remedial group when test results expose weakness, or redeploy a teacher mid-year, without waiting for a distant authority to revise a general plan. Fifth, it strengthens accountability in both directions — the school can present its costed, approved plan to the department as an evidence-based demand for posts and funds, while the

community can ask the school, against its own plan, what has been achieved. Sixth, it directly attacks the problems that macro planning cannot see: the particular out-of-school children named in the school's survey, the specific class without a teacher, the leaking roof in Room 2. For these reasons, educational reform in Pakistan and elsewhere has steadily moved towards school-based and cluster-based planning, supported by school council funds, because the last and most important unit of the educational system is not the province or the district but the individual school where children and teachers actually meet.

Conclusion

To conclude, educational planning is the evidence-based, forward-looking process of choosing how educational goals will be achieved with limited resources; at the elementary level its objectives are universal access, retention and completion, equity, quality of learning, efficiency, balanced growth and community accountability. The process proceeds through diagnosis, target-setting, forecasting, the design and costing of programmes, approval, implementation and monitoring-cum-evaluation, and then revolves into a new cycle. Micro-level planning brings this discipline down to the individual school, where local knowledge is exact, participation creates ownership, community resources are mobilized, adaptation is quick and accountability is personal. A system that plans well at the top but never at the school will distribute resources without transforming classrooms; a system that also plans at the micro level gives every local school a realistic map of its own improvement, and it is on such maps, faithfully followed, that elementary education actually advances.

Question 2: School Education Rules and Regulations in Pakistan; Conflict and Grievance Management (20 Marks)

Analyze the essential school education rules and regulations in Pakistan. How do these rules help a headteacher handle official conflicts and grievance management?

Introduction

A public school does not run on the personal preferences of its headteacher. It runs within a framework of law, rules and regulations that define what may be done, by whom, in what manner, and with what remedy when something goes wrong. These rules protect everyone at once: the child, whose right to education and safety they guarantee; the teacher, whose service, pay and dignity they secure; the headteacher, whose lawful decisions they support; and the public, whose money and trust they safeguard. Pakistan's school education is administered mainly by the provinces after the Eighteenth Constitutional Amendment devolved education, so the detailed rules are provincial, but their broad structure is common across the country. This answer analyses the essential categories of rules and regulations governing school education in Pakistan, and then shows how a headteacher uses them, practically and fairly, to handle official conflicts and to manage the grievances of staff, pupils and parents.

Constitutional and Legal Foundations

The foundation of the whole structure is the Constitution of the Islamic Republic of Pakistan. Article 25-A declares that the State shall provide free and compulsory education to all children of the age of five to sixteen years in such manner as may be determined by law; Article 25

guarantees equality of citizens, and Article 37-B commits the State to removing illiteracy and providing free and compulsory secondary education within the minimum possible period. Acting on Article 25-A, the federation and the provinces have enacted free and compulsory education legislation — for example the Right to Free and Compulsory Education Act for the Islamabad Capital Territory and corresponding provincial Acts in Punjab, Sindh, Khyber Pakhtunkhwa and Balochistan. These laws typically define the duties of government and local authorities to establish schools, the duty of parents to send their children to school, norms for pupil-teacher ratios and infrastructure, the role of school management committees, and a prohibition on corporal punishment and on capitation or screening charges. Below the statutes stand the national and provincial education policies and curricula frameworks, which, while not law in the strict sense, authoritatively guide standards, medium, curriculum and assessment within the schools.

Service, Conduct and Administrative Rules

The second great category governs the teachers and staff as government servants. Recruitment, qualifications, appointment, probation, confirmation, seniority, promotion, transfer and retirement are regulated by the provincial civil servants framework and the recruitment and service rules framed for each teaching cadre, administered through bodies such as the public service commissions and district education authorities. Efficiency and discipline rules — in Punjab, the Punjab Employees Efficiency, Discipline and Accountability (PEEDA) Act, and analogous rules elsewhere — define misconduct, prescribe penalties from censure and withholding of increments to removal and dismissal, and, crucially, prescribe the

procedure: charge, explanation, inquiry, hearing and appeal. Government servants' conduct rules regulate the daily obligations of teachers and headteachers: no unauthorized absence, no private tuition or outside employment without permission, no political activity in service, no acceptance of gifts, courtesy and restraint in official dealings, and the duty to obey lawful orders of superiors while maintaining proper records of that obedience. Leave rules, the general financial rules and the treasury and audit codes govern pay, leave, purchases, grants and accounts. Alongside these stand the school-specific instructions — often consolidated as an education code or as departmental circulars and notifications — covering school timings and the academic calendar, admissions and the maintenance of admission-withdrawal registers, examinations and the declaration of results, pupil discipline and the prohibition of corporal punishment, school funds and their permitted uses, inspections, and the constitution and functions of school councils or management committees. Finally, child-protection, health and safety directions, and the orders of the courts and of ombudsman institutions, complete the framework within which a headteacher must work.

Analysed as a whole, these rules perform five functions. They distribute authority, showing who may decide what — which matters the headteacher may settle, which belong to the district officer, and which belong to the government. They standardize procedure, so that a teacher in one school and a teacher in another are treated alike in leave, inquiry or promotion. They protect rights, giving every employee and parent a known remedy and every child a known protection. They create a record: because decisions under rules are written, filed and auditable, arbitrary or corrupt action becomes difficult to hide. And they provide continuity: officers are transferred, but the rules remain, so the institution's memory and standards survive its

temporary occupants. Their weaknesses should also be recognized: rules are numerous, sometimes outdated or mutually inconsistent, and often known imperfectly by those who must apply them; applied mechanically, they can also smother initiative and delay urgent decisions. The competent headteacher therefore treats rules neither as an excuse for inaction nor as an obstacle to be evaded, but as the authoritative grammar of official work, to be known thoroughly and applied with judgement and humanity.

Rules as the Basis for Handling Official Conflicts

Official conflicts in a school commonly arise over duties and workload, leave and attendance, seniority and promotion claims, the use of funds and stores, examination duties, transfers, and relations between teachers themselves or between the school and its officers. Rules help the headteacher handle such conflicts in at least four ways. First, they depersonalize the dispute. When two teachers claim the same free period, class or examination duty, the headteacher does not decide by favour but by the sanctioned timetable, workload norms and past practice recorded in the office; the decision is then received as the working of a rule rather than as a personal preference, and it can be explained identically to both parties. Second, rules define the headteacher's jurisdiction and its limits. A matter within the school's competence — a timetable clash, a minor lapse of punctuality — is settled on the spot; a matter beyond it — a disputed seniority list or a demand for a benefit the rules do not allow — is referred, with a written statement of facts, to the competent authority. Knowing the boundary prevents both the timid headteacher, who refers everything and decides nothing, and the over-reaching one, whose unauthorized concessions create fresh grievances elsewhere.

Third, the rules prescribe fair procedure where a conflict hardens into a disciplinary case: the complaint is recorded, the teacher concerned is given the charge in writing and an opportunity to explain, an inquiry is held where required, and the order passed is a speaking order that states facts and reasons. Because the efficiency and discipline framework also provides for appeal, the aggrieved teacher has a remedy above the headteacher, which paradoxically strengthens the headteacher's own decision — it need not be defended as final or personal, only as regular. Fourth, rules protect the headteacher personally. A headteacher who acts within the code, records dissent or protest where an oral instruction appears irregular (and asks for it in writing, as conduct rules permit), and keeps copies of orders, can demonstrate to any inquiry, audit or court that the action was official and regular. In conflict, this documentary shield is frequently the difference between a headteacher who is vindicated and one who is made a scapegoat.

Rules and Grievance Management

A grievance is any dissatisfaction — of a teacher, a pupil or a parent — that arises from a decision, a condition of work or study, or the conduct of another person, and that the aggrieved person believes to be unjust. Grievances in schools include a teacher's complaint about workload, leave refused, a pay or increment error, harassment or unfair treatment; a parent's complaint about admission, fees or charges wrongly demanded, a teacher's behaviour or corporal punishment of a child; and a pupil's complaint about unfair marking or treatment. Sound grievance management, supported by rules, follows a recognizable ladder. At the first step, the grievance is received and heard: the headteacher listens fully, preferably the same

day, records the complaint in writing or in a complaint register, and acknowledges it. Many grievances dissolve at this stage because they arise from misunderstanding or from an error — a wrong entry in a pay bill, a misread timetable — which the rules allow the headteacher to correct immediately. At the second step, the matter is examined against the relevant rule: what does the leave rule, the workload norm, the admission policy or the prohibition on charges actually provide? Examination against a text replaces argument about persons with agreement about provisions. At the third step, a reasoned decision is given, in writing where the matter is serious, citing the rule applied; where the grievance is justified, the remedy is applied without grudging delay, and where it cannot be granted, the reason and the available appeal are explained respectfully.

Where the grievance is against the headteacher personally, or exceeds the school's authority — claims about pay fixation, promotion, transfer or service records — the rules provide the institutional channels: representation to the district education authority, appeal under the service and discipline framework within the prescribed time, and ultimately recourse to the provincial ombudsman or the service tribunal. The headteacher's duty in such cases is to forward the representation promptly with factual comments, neither suppressing it nor colouring it, because obstruction of a lawful remedy is itself misconduct under the conduct rules. Two management principles complete the picture. Prevention is better than redress: most grievances are born of irregularity — duties distributed without a visible norm, leave decided without criteria, marks and records kept carelessly — so a headteacher who runs the school strictly by published rules has few grievances to manage. And confidentiality with dignity matters: grievances are handled privately, without humiliating either party, and without

retaliation against a person who has complained in a lawful manner, since victimization converts one grievance into a permanent conflict. Properly used, the rules thus transform grievance handling from a contest of tempers into an orderly search for the applicable provision and its just application.

Conclusion

To conclude, school education in Pakistan is governed by a layered body of rules: the Constitution and free-and-compulsory-education legislation at the top; service, conduct, efficiency-and-discipline, leave and financial rules for staff; education codes, departmental instructions and school-level regulations for daily operations; and child-protection and accountability mechanisms around them all. Analysed together, they distribute authority, standardize procedure, protect rights, create a verifiable record and secure continuity. For the headteacher they are the principal instrument of conflict and grievance management: they depersonalize disputes by substituting a provision for a preference, they mark the limits of the school's jurisdiction, they prescribe fair procedure and appeal in disciplinary and service matters, they protect the headteacher who acts regularly and on record, and they give teachers, pupils and parents an orderly ladder of redress. The headteacher who knows the rules thoroughly, applies them evenly and explains them patiently will not eliminate conflict — no human institution is without it — but will settle it justly, quickly and in a manner that strengthens, rather than consumes, the school.

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Question 3: Importance of Official Documentation; Types of School Records and Their Management (20 Marks)

Why is maintaining official documentation crucial? Discuss the various types of school records (e.g., logbooks, stock registers, cash books) and their management techniques.

Introduction

A school runs on memory, and the memory of an institution is its records. Teachers are transferred, headteachers retire and pupils pass out, but the admission register still shows who studied in the school, the cash book still shows what public money was received and spent, and the stock register still shows what the government and the community placed in the school's custody. Official documentation — the registers, books, files and reports that a school is required to create and preserve — is therefore not clerical decoration added to the real work of education; it is part of that work, the evidence on which admissions, promotions, salaries, grants, inspections and audits all depend. A school with good teaching and bad records will repeatedly suffer injustice and suspicion; a school with accurate records can prove its claims, defend its staff and plan its future. This answer first explains why maintaining official documentation is crucial, then describes the various types of school records, and finally sets out the techniques by which they should be managed.

Why Maintaining Official Documentation Is Crucial

The importance of documentation can be seen from several directions. First, records provide legal and official evidence. The admission register is the authoritative proof of a child's

enrolment, age and schooling, used later for certificates, transfers and verification; the service records of teachers support their pay, increments, promotion and pension; and financial records establish that public money was spent lawfully. When a dispute reaches an inquiry or a court, what is written and attested in the official record usually decides the matter, and what is not recorded is treated as not having happened. Second, documentation secures financial accountability. Public funds — salaries, grants and school council money — are audited, and the cash book, vouchers, stock registers and utilization reports are the school's answer to the auditor. Clean records protect honest officers; missing or manipulated records expose even the innocent to suspicion and the dishonest to detection. Third, records are indispensable to planning and administration. Enrolment and attendance figures determine the demand for teachers, classrooms, textbooks and funds; examination records reveal the classes and subjects in which the school is weak; and the education department's decisions about a school's posts and grants are taken from the data the school itself supplies. A school that reports carelessly is planned for carelessly.

Fourth, documentation ensures continuity. The logbook, files of orders and correspondence, and handed-over registers allow an incoming headteacher to take charge intelligently within days instead of months, and allow a class's new teacher to know its history, its syllabus coverage and its weak pupils. Fifth, records protect rights and enable grievances to be settled justly, as service matters, leave, attendance and marks can be verified from documents rather than argued from memory and temper. Sixth, documentation is an instrument of evaluation and improvement: the trend of attendance, results and expenditure over several years, visible only in records, tells the school whether it is improving and where to intervene. For all these

reasons, educational codes treat the maintenance of prescribed records as a duty of the headteacher, and inspection and audit judge a school's administration very largely by the condition of its registers and files.

Various Types of School Records

School records are numerous, but they fall into convenient groups. The first group comprises statutory and pupil records. The admission and withdrawal register (daftar-e-dakhil-o-kharij) records every child's admission and departure with dates and particulars and is a permanent record of the highest value. Attendance registers for pupils, maintained class-wise, and for staff, record daily presence and form the basis of attendance statistics, stipends and follow-up of absentees. Records of examinations and results — result registers, progress reports and, where applicable, board results — document each pupil's achievement and promotion. Transfer and school-leaving certificates, character certificates and their counterfoils belong to the same family, as do health records and cumulative record cards where maintained.

Table 1: Principal school records and what each records

Record	Contents	Principal Use
Admission-withdrawal register	Each pupil's admission, particulars and withdrawal	Permanent proof of enrolment and schooling
Attendance registers	Daily presence of pupils and staff	Attendance statistics, follow-up, stipends and accountability
Logbook	Visits of officers, important events, orders and remarks	Institutional history and a record of supervision
Stock register	Articles received, purchased, issued and written off	Custody, verification and audit of school property
Cash book	Daily receipts and payments of	Financial accountability and audit

	school funds	
Service books / personal files	Appointments, leave, increments and service history of staff	Pay, promotion, discipline and pension
Result registers	Marks and promotion decisions for each class	Proof of achievement and basis of reporting
Correspondence files	Letters received and issued, orders and circulars	Traceability of decisions and compliance

The second group comprises financial and property records. The cash book records, day by day, every receipt and payment of the school's funds, with vouchers numbered and filed in support; subsidiary records include the acquittance rolls for salaries, grant registers, and the accounts of the school council or management committee funds. The stock register (and its distinction between permanent or dead stock and consumable stock) records furniture, equipment, books and materials received, issued to classes or teachers, and condemned or written off by proper authority; a library accession register performs the same duty for books. The third group comprises administrative and institutional records: the logbook, in which visiting and inspecting officers record their remarks and in which important events of the school are entered; the order book and circular files; files of correspondence with the department, parents and other institutions; staff meeting minutes; the timetable and duty roster files; leave registers and casual-leave accounts; and the personal files and service books of the staff. The fourth group comprises statistical and planning records: enrolment and attendance returns submitted to the department, the school census and EMIS forms, teacher and infrastructure data, and the school development plan and its progress reports. Together these records give a complete documentary account of the school's pupils, people, property, money and decisions.

Techniques for the Management of School Records

Records yield their value only if they are managed with system. The first technique is regularity and contemporaneity: entries are made at the time of the event — attendance in the morning, receipts and payments the same day, stock on the day of receipt — because reconstruction from memory weeks later produces error and invites suspicion. The second technique is accuracy with proper attestation: figures are checked before entry, totals are struck and signed, corrections are made by a single scored line, initialled and dated — never by overwriting, erasure or correction fluid, which in an official register arouses audit objection — and the headteacher signs registers at the prescribed intervals, daily or weekly as the rules require, so that responsibility for their correctness is visibly assumed. The third technique is classification and indexing: each register and file has a fixed place and a fixed custodian, files are numbered and titled under a simple filing system, an index of files is maintained, and dak (incoming mail) is registered and distributed the day it arrives, so that any paper can be traced and produced within minutes when an officer, auditor or court demands it.

The fourth technique is safe custody and preservation. Permanent records such as the admission register and service books are kept in locked steel almirahs, protected from damp, termites and fire; current registers remain in the office, not in private homes; and records are retained for the periods prescribed by the rules — some permanently, others for fixed years — and destroyed, when due, only under written authority and by a recorded procedure. The fifth technique is periodic verification and internal check: the headteacher physically verifies stock against the register at least annually, checks the cash balance against the cash book regularly, reconciles the school's figures with treasury and departmental records, and reviews attendance

and result registers monthly, converting record-keeping into an instrument of supervision rather than a post-facto ritual. The sixth technique is the responsible use of technology. Where computers and EMIS reporting are available, data are entered once, checked against the manual registers, backed up, and protected by passwords; digital copies of key documents add security against loss, but they supplement rather than excuse the prescribed manual records unless the department has formally replaced them. Finally, confidentiality must be observed: records containing personal information about pupils and staff are shown only to those officially entitled, and certificates and extracts are issued under the headteacher's signature and seal after verification from the original register. Managed in this way — written promptly, written truly, classified, preserved, verified and guarded — a school's documentation becomes an asset that serves teaching, finance, justice and planning alike.

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Conclusion

To conclude, maintaining official documentation is crucial because records are the school's legal evidence, its financial defence, its planning data, its institutional memory and its means of doing justice between pupil, teacher, department and public. The records themselves are extensive: admission, attendance, examination and certificate records for pupils; cash books, acquittance rolls and stock and library registers for money and property; logbooks, order and correspondence files, minutes, leave records and service books for administration; and statistical returns for planning. They are well managed when entries are contemporaneous and accurate, corrections are transparent and attested, files are classified and traceable, custody is safe and retention follows the rules, verification is periodic, technology is used with checks, and

confidentiality is respected. A headteacher is rightly judged, in large part, by the condition of the school's records, because in their pages the real state of the school — orderly or neglected, honest or doubtful — is faithfully written.

Question 4: Concept and Purposes of School Discipline; Reducing Student Absenteeism (20 Marks)

Define the concept and purposes of school discipline. What psychological and managerial measures should be taken to reduce student absenteeism in elementary classrooms?

Introduction

Discipline is one of the oldest concerns of schooling and one of the most misunderstood. To many it still means silence, punishment and fear; to the modern educator it means something wider and better — the training by which children learn to govern themselves, respect others and use their freedom responsibly, so that order in the school is the product of understanding and habit rather than of terror. The test of discipline in an elementary school is not how frightened the children are in the headteacher's presence, but how they behave in his or her absence. Absenteeism, the problem taken up in the second part of this answer, is closely connected with discipline in this deeper sense: children are absent, very often, not because they are wicked but because school has failed to attract, attach and satisfy them, or because circumstances at home defeat their attendance. This answer first defines the concept and purposes of school discipline and then sets out the psychological and managerial measures by which a headteacher and teachers can reduce absenteeism in elementary classrooms.

Concept of School Discipline

The word discipline derives from the Latin disciplina, meaning teaching or instruction, and from discipulus, a learner; its root idea is therefore learning, not punishment. School discipline may be defined as the set of conditions, rules, habits and relationships through which the behaviour of pupils (and, by extension, of the whole school community) is guided towards accepted standards, so that teaching and learning can proceed and the character of the young is formed. Three features of the concept are essential. First, discipline is essentially developmental: its aim is self-discipline — the internalized capacity of the child to control impulses, keep rules when no one is watching, persist in work and consider others. External order is only the scaffolding within which this inner control is built, and wise teachers withdraw the scaffolding gradually as the child grows. Second, discipline is positive before it is corrective. The larger part of it consists of good teaching, clear routines, meaningful work, praise and example, which leave little room for disorder; punishment is the smaller, remedial part, to be used sparingly, proportionately and without humiliation, and in Pakistani schools corporal punishment is prohibited by law and departmental instruction, a prohibition consistent with both children's rights and educational evidence that fear suppresses learning. Third, discipline is a property of the whole institution, not of the classroom alone: consistency between teachers, fairness between pupils, punctuality of staff and the tone set by the headteacher determine whether children experience the school's rules as a just order worth internalizing or as arbitrary power to be evaded. Preventive, democratic and corrective discipline are often distinguished: preventive discipline arranges conditions so that problems do not arise; democratic or participative discipline involves pupils in making and keeping rules, through class monitors, councils and responsibilities; corrective

discipline deals justly and instructively with the breaches that still occur. A mature system uses the three in that order of emphasis.

Purposes of School Discipline

The purposes of school discipline follow from the concept. Its first purpose is to create and protect the conditions of learning: a class that is orderly, punctual and attentive gives every child, including the quiet and the weak, a fair chance to hear, think and work; disorder, by contrast, taxes most heavily exactly those children who can least afford to lose teaching time. Its second purpose is character formation. Through daily practice in honesty, regularity, cleanliness, respect for others and their property, care of shared things, and acceptance of the consequences of one's acts, the child acquires the habits of which adult character is composed; the elementary years are decisive here, because habits formed early persist. Its third purpose is socialization: the school is the child's first society beyond the family, and discipline teaches the give-and-take of communal life — waiting for one's turn, listening to others, working in a team, resolving quarrels without violence, and respecting lawful authority while retaining self-respect. Its fourth purpose is safety and welfare: rules about movement, play, sanitation, leaving the premises and conduct towards others protect young children from harm and protect their belongings and dignity. Its fifth purpose is the development of responsibility and leadership, as pupils entrusted with duties — monitorship, library and cleanliness committees, care of plants and equipment — learn by practice that authority is service. Finally, discipline serves the school's standing in society: parents judge a school considerably by the bearing of its pupils, and an orderly, courteous student body is the school's best advertisement and the foundation

of community trust. None of these purposes is achieved by fear; all of them are achieved, slowly and surely, by consistent, fair and kindly firmness applied over years.

Causes of Absenteeism: A Necessary Preliminary

Measures against absenteeism succeed only when they are aimed at its actual causes, which fall into three groups. Causes within the child include ill health and malnutrition, fear of a teacher or of bullying, inability to follow lessons after previous absence or weak foundations, and lack of interest where teaching is dull or pitched far above or below the child's level. Causes within the home include poverty and child labour in fields, shops and homes; parents' illiteracy and low valuation of schooling, especially for girls; distance and unsafe routes; domestic duties such as caring for siblings; illness in the family and seasonal migration. Causes within the school include unattractive or harsh teaching, irregular teachers themselves, absence of toilets, water and seating, rigid or inconvenient timings, and a record-keeping system that notices absence late or not at all. Psychological measures act mainly on the child and the home's attitudes; managerial measures act on the school and its systems; a serious campaign against absenteeism needs both, applied together and patiently.

Psychological Measures to Reduce Absenteeism

Psychological measures work on motivation, emotion and habit. The first is to make the school a place the child loves: a welcoming early-grade classroom, a teacher who greets children by name, play, story, song and activity worked into the day, and the absence of fear — since a single experience of beating or public humiliation can make a young child dread school for a term. Positive reinforcement is the second measure: regular attendance is noticed and

rewarded promptly and publicly, through praise, attendance charts, certificates and small privileges, and classes compete kindly for the best attendance banner; behaviour that is appreciated is repeated, particularly by young children. The third measure is early identification and personal attention: the teacher notes the first unexplained absence, speaks to the child on return without scolding, discovers the reason, and where the difficulty is learning — the commonest hidden cause, since the child who cannot follow begins to avoid — arranges remedial help, a peer buddy and attainable tasks so that the child experiences success and regains the wish to come. The fourth measure concerns parents: their attitudes decide attendance at this age, so teachers build a warm, continuing relationship with them, visit homes respectfully, explain in simple terms what regular attendance does for the child's future, involve mothers especially, and celebrate the child's progress with the family, converting parents from bystanders into partners. The fifth measure is attention to health and emotional needs within the school's reach: noticing the chronically ill, hungry or distressed child, referring families to health and social support through the committee and local services, adjusting demands for a child in difficulty, and protecting every child from bullying through supervision and a clear, enforced norm of kindness. Underlying all these is the psychology of belonging: children attend institutions to which they feel attached, and attachment is built by being known, missed when absent and welcomed when present.

Managerial Measures to Reduce Absenteeism

Managerial measures create the systems within which psychological goodwill can operate. The first is accurate, daily attendance recording with same-day analysis: registers are marked in the

first period, the day's absentees are listed by class, and the school knows by mid-morning exactly who is absent, instead of discovering a pattern at the end of the month. The second is a fixed follow-up ladder: a message or word sent to the home on the first day of unexplained absence; a teacher's or monitor's inquiry on the second; a headteacher's home visit or committee member's visit on the third and for every chronic case; and a written record of causes and action on an absentee card for each habitual absentee, reviewed weekly. The third measure is data-based targeting: monthly class-wise and child-wise attendance percentages are displayed and discussed in staff meetings, chronic cases (say, attendance below 75 per cent) are identified by name, and responsibility for each such child is assigned to a teacher who reports progress — because absenteeism falls when it is measured, owned and reviewed, and flourishes when it is only lamented in general.

The fourth measure is the removal of school-side obstacles: timings adjusted, where rules permit, to local conditions such as harvest, weather and girls' household duties; teachers' own attendance and punctuality ensured first, since irregular teachers breed irregular pupils; toilets, drinking water, seating and midday arrangements maintained so that attendance is physically tolerable; and the timetable enriched with sports, library and activity periods that give children something to look forward to. The fifth measure is institutional partnership: the school management committee is given the attendance figures and a defined role in persuading defaulting families; local elders, religious leaders and health workers are engaged for difficult cases; and incentives available under government or NGO schemes — stipends for girls, free textbooks and uniforms, school feeding where it exists — are claimed fully and delivered punctually, since a promised benefit delayed is an attendance argument lost. The sixth measure

is continuity on return: a returning absentee is helped to catch up through brief remedial grouping rather than being shamed before the class or left permanently behind, because the fear of an unbridgeable gap is itself a cause of the next absence. Finally, the headteacher reports attendance honestly upward and seeks departmental help for structural causes — a vacant post, an unsafe route, an unserved settlement — that exceed the school's own powers.

Conclusion

To conclude, school discipline is the guidance of behaviour towards self-discipline: a positive, developmental order, built by good teaching, fair rules, example and kindly firmness rather than by punishment, whose purposes are to protect learning, form character, teach social living, ensure safety, develop responsibility and earn the community's trust. Absenteeism is discipline's close relative, for the absent child is outside every one of these influences. It is reduced by psychological measures that make school loved and attendance satisfying — welcome, praise, early personal attention, remedial success, partnership with parents and care for health and belonging — joined to managerial measures that make absence visible and answered: daily records, a follow-up ladder, named responsibility for chronic cases, removal of school-side obstacles, committee and community partnership, and help to catch up on return. Where these measures are applied together and patiently, elementary schools in even difficult circumstances have shown that attendance rises steadily — not because children are compelled, but because school has become, for child and parent alike, worth attending.

Question 5: Core Competencies, Skills and Professional Ethics of an Elementary School Teacher (20 Marks)

Discuss the core competencies, skills, and professional ethics required by an elementary school teacher to ensure effective classroom.

Introduction

Note on the question as printed: the printed question ends with the words 'to ensure effective classroom', the final word evidently being incomplete in the booklet; this answer accordingly treats the question as asking about the competencies, skills and ethics required for effective classroom teaching and management, which is the only sensible reading of its intent. The elementary school teacher occupies a unique position in education. For the young child, the teacher is the school: the child's attitude to learning, to books, to authority and to his or her own ability is formed largely in the person of the first teachers. Unlike the secondary or university teacher, who may rely on subject specialization, the elementary teacher usually teaches most subjects to the same class, manages the whole life of the classroom, and deals directly with parents — a breadth of role that demands a correspondingly broad set of competencies, skills and ethical commitments. A competency is an underlying capability — knowledge, understanding and disposition — while a skill is the practised ability to perform a task well; professionalism binds both together with ethics, the standards of right conduct that govern a teacher's relations with pupils, colleagues, parents and society. This answer discusses the core competencies and the practical skills required of an elementary teacher, and then the professional ethics without which competence and skill can themselves become harmful.

Core Competencies of the Elementary School Teacher

The first core competency is subject-matter knowledge. The elementary teacher must know, accurately and confidently, the content of the elementary curriculum: the languages (Urdu and English) in their reading, writing, listening and speaking aspects; mathematics through number, operations, measurement, geometry and elementary data handling; general science and social studies; Islamiat and the other prescribed subjects. This knowledge must extend beyond the textbook page the children see, because a teacher who knows only today's lesson cannot answer questions, correct misconceptions or connect today's topic with yesterday's and tomorrow's. The second competency is pedagogical knowledge — knowledge of how children learn and how teaching produces learning. It includes the principles of child development and of individual differences; the sequencing of concepts from concrete to abstract and from simple to complex; methods suited to young children, especially activity-based, play-based and multi-grade techniques; the framing of lesson objectives; questioning and explanation; the use of assessment to diagnose and remedy; and the management of a class of forty or more young children as a learning group. A teacher may possess the first competency without the second — many learned adults cannot teach a seven-year-old to read — and elementary teaching fails precisely at this junction more often than at any other.

The third competency is knowledge of the child: an understanding of children's physical, intellectual, emotional and social development, of their interests, fears and home backgrounds, and of the special needs that some children bring — slow learning, disability, a different home language, or distress at home. Teaching that ignores the learner teaches only the syllabus. The fourth competency is curricular and planning knowledge: command of the prescribed

curriculum and textbooks, the ability to convert them into yearly, monthly and daily plans, and the judgement to adapt them to the actual level of the class without abandoning standards. The fifth competency is assessment literacy: knowing how to construct simple tests and tasks, observe children systematically, keep records of progress, interpret results honestly and use them to reteach and to report to parents. The sixth is a professional disposition towards reflection and growth: the habit of examining one's own lessons, welcoming supervision, learning from colleagues and continuing to study, because a teacher who has stopped learning soon stops being able to teach. Communication and relational competence — the ability to establish warm, respectful relationships with children, parents and colleagues — underlies all of these, since education at this level is transacted through relationships before it is transacted through content.

Practical Skills Required for an Effective Classroom

Competencies become visible in the classroom through skills, of which the most important may be grouped as follows. Lesson preparation and presentation skills come first: writing a clear lesson plan with objectives, materials, steps and assessment; opening a lesson by connecting it with previous learning and arousing interest; explaining in language the children understand, with examples from their own environment; demonstrating, narrating, reading aloud and using the blackboard legibly and in an organized manner. Questioning skill follows: asking questions that are clear, distributed among all children rather than a confident few, graduated from recall to thinking, and followed by patient wait-time and appreciative treatment of answers, including wrong ones, which are treated as information rather than offences. Classroom management

skill is the third group: establishing a few clear routines and rules with the children; arranging seating and movement so that work flows; distributing attention and materials without chaos; maintaining, through presence, voice, eye contact and interesting work, the quiet authority that makes punishment rarely necessary; and handling disruption calmly, privately and proportionately.

The fourth group is the skill of using teaching aids and activity methods: preparing and using charts, flashcards, objects, models and the local environment; organizing group work, pair work, games, songs, stories and practical activity so that young children learn by doing; and, where available, using audio-visual and digital material purposefully rather than as decoration. The fifth group is assessment and record skill in daily practice: checking understanding during the lesson through questions and observation, marking work promptly with comments a child can act upon, maintaining attendance, progress and anecdotal records neatly, and identifying early the child who is falling behind, absent frequently or in difficulty. The sixth group is communication skill beyond the classroom: speaking with parents in respectful, plain language about their child's progress and needs; writing clear reports; working cooperatively with colleagues in staff meetings and shared duties; and representing the school creditably to the community. Finally, there is the cluster of personal and organizational skills: punctuality and regularity, preparation in advance, care of materials and records, management of one's time and class time, and composure under the small emergencies of a school day. None of these skills is exotic; together, practised daily, they are what parents and pupils mean by 'a good teacher'.

Table 1: From competency to classroom skill to visible result

Competency	Classroom Skill	Visible Result
Subject knowledge	Accurate explanation, confident answers, correction of misconceptions	Children learn correct content the first time
Pedagogical knowledge	Activity methods, graded questioning, concrete-to-abstract sequencing	Children understand, participate and retain
Knowledge of the child	Differentiation, remedial help, pastoral attention	Slow and shy learners progress instead of dropping behind
Assessment literacy	In-lesson checking, prompt marking, progress records	Weakness is caught early and retaught in time
Relational competence	Fair routines, warm authority, parent communication	Orderly, trusting classroom and supportive homes

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Professional Ethics of the Elementary School Teacher

Skill without ethics is dangerous: a clever teacher who is unjust, negligent or self-seeking harms children precisely because children trust and imitate him or her. The professional ethics of teaching may be organized by the relationships they govern. Towards pupils, the teacher's first ethical duty is the child's best interest: to teach every child diligently and without discrimination on grounds of wealth, caste, sect, gender, ability or personal liking; to protect children from harm, which includes the absolute rejection of corporal punishment, humiliation, favouritism and exploitation; to keep confidences about a child's and family's private matters; to assess and report achievement honestly, neither inflating marks to please nor depressing them to punish; and to be a fit example, since the young child copies the teacher's speech, honesty, cleanliness and treatment of others before understanding any lesson about them. Punctuality, regularity

and prepared teaching are ethical duties at this level, not mere administrative preferences, because the child's time and the public's salary are both held in trust.

Towards parents and the community, the teacher owes respectful and truthful communication, cooperation in the child's interest, and restraint from exploiting the relationship — no compulsory private tuition of one's own pupils for gain, no gifts or favours accepted in exchange for advantage, and no use of school position for private or political ends. Towards colleagues and the institution, ethics requires cooperation rather than rivalry, fairness in shared duties, respect for the headteacher's lawful authority combined with the courage to offer honest professional advice, confidentiality about colleagues' difficulties, and loyalty to the school's decisions once taken. Towards the profession and the state, the teacher is bound by the conduct rules of the service — obedience to lawful orders, integrity in records and examinations, avoidance of unauthorized absence and outside engagements, and refusal of corruption in any form, including the falsification of enrolment, attendance or results, which steals both from the exchequer and from children. Finally, ethics includes a duty of self-development: to remain professionally competent is an obligation owed to every future class, and the teacher who neglects it while drawing a salary for teaching is in quiet breach of trust. In our own cultural and religious setting, these professional ethics are reinforced by the conception of teaching as an amanat — a sacred trust — in which the teacher stands in a position of moral parenthood towards the child, answerable for that trust to society and to conscience alike.

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Conclusion

To conclude, the elementary school teacher requires, first, core competencies: sound subject knowledge, pedagogical knowledge of how young children learn, knowledge of the child, curricular and planning ability, assessment literacy, and a reflective, growing professional disposition, all carried by relational and communicative competence. These competencies are exercised through practical skills: planning and presenting lessons, questioning, managing the classroom with warm authority, using aids and activity methods, assessing and recording progress, communicating with parents and colleagues, and organizing personal and class time dependably. Over both stands professional ethics: devotion to every child's interest without discrimination, protection from harm and humiliation, honesty in assessment and records, integrity in service and finance, respect towards parents and colleagues, and lifelong self-development — the ethics of a trust. A teacher strong in all three — competence, skill and ethics — makes the classroom effective in the deepest sense: children in such a classroom not only learn to read, write and calculate, but learn, from the person before them, what a trustworthy human being is; and that double achievement is the true standard of elementary teaching.

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